ON A CONJECTURE OF RUDIN ON SQUARES IN ARITHMETIC PROGRESSIONS

ENRIQUE GONZÁLEZ-JIMÉNEZ AND XAVIER XARLES

ABSTRACT. Let Q(N;q,a) denotes the number of squares in the arithmetic progression qn+a, for $n=0,1,\ldots,N-1$, and let Q(N) be the maximum of Q(N;q,a) over all non-trivial arithmetic progressions qn+a. Rudin's conjecture asserts that $Q(N)=O(\sqrt{N})$, and in its stronger form that Q(N)=Q(N;24,1) if $N\geq 6$. We prove the conjecture above for $6\leq N\leq 52$. We even prove that the arithmetic progression 24n+1 is the only one, up to equivalence, that contains Q(N) squares for the values of N such that Q(N) increases, for $7\leq N\leq 52$ (hence, for N=8,13,16,23,27,36,41 and 52). This allow us to assert, what we have called Super–Strong Rudin's Conjecture: let be $N=\mathcal{GP}_k+1\geq 8$ for some integer k, where \mathcal{GP}_k is the k-th generalized pentagonal number, then Q(N)=Q(N;q,a) with $\gcd(q,a)$ squarefree and q>0 if and only if (q,a)=(24,1).

1. Introduction

A well–known result by Fermat states that no four squares in arithmetic progression over $\mathbb Z$ exist. This result may be reformulated in the following form: in four consecutive terms of a non-constant arithmetic progression, there are at most three squares. Hence, it is natural to ask how many squares there may be in N consecutive terms of a non-constant arithmetic progression.

Following Bombieri, Granville and Pintz [1], given q and a integers, $q \neq 0$, we denote by Q(N;q,a) the number of squares in the arithmetic progression qn + a, for n = 0, 1, ..., N-1 (there is a slight difference between our notation and the one in [1], since our arithmetic progressions begin with i = 0 instead of i = 1). Denote by Q(N) the maximum of Q(N;q,a) over all non-trivial arithmetic progressions. Notice that Fermat's result is equivalent to Q(4) = 3.

As a consequence of Fermat's result and of its own result on arithmetic progressions, Szemerédi [25] proved an old Erdös [12] conjecture: Q(N) = o(N). This bound was improved by Bombieri, Granville and Pintz [1] to $Q(N) = O(N^{2/3+o(1)})$, and by Bombieri and Zannier [2] to $Q(N) = O(N^{3/5+o(1)})$. Moreover, the so called Rudin's conjecture ([21, end of §4.6]) asserts that $Q(N) = O(\sqrt{N})$, and in its stronger form that (what we called Strong Rudin's Conjecture):

$$Q(N) = Q(N; 24, 1) = \sqrt{\frac{8}{3}N} + O(1)$$
 if $N \ge 6$.

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Notice that Q(5; 24, 1) = 3, but Q(5; 120, 49) = 4 (since $7^2 = 49, 13^2 = 169, 17^2 = 289, 409, 23^2 = 529$)*. Therefore Q(5) = 4 because Q(5) cannot be 5 by Fermat's result.

We will prove that the arithmetic progression 24n+1 is the only one, up to equivalence, that contains Q(N) squares for the values of N such that Q(N) increases, for $7 \le N \le 52$ (hence, for N = 8, 13, 16, 23, 27, 36, 41 and 52). This allow us to assert, what we have called Super-Strong Rudin's Conjecture: let be $N = \mathcal{GP}_k + 1 \ge 8$ for some integer k, where \mathcal{GP}_k is the k-th generalized pentagonal number, then Q(N) = Q(N; q, a) with $\gcd(q, a)$ squarefree and q > 0 if and only if (q, a) = (24, 1).

The following theorem summarizes the main results of this article.

Theorem 1. Let N be a positive integer, then:

- (S) Q(N) = Q(N; 24, 1) if $6 \le N \le 52$.
- (SS) If $8 \le N = \mathcal{GP}_k + 1 \le 52$ for some integer k, then Q(N) = Q(N; q, a) with gcd(q, a) squarefree and $q \ge 0$ if and only if (q, a) = (24, 1).
 - 2. Preliminaries: Equivalences, translation to geometry and notations.

We denote by \mathbb{N} the set of non-negative integers.

Observe first of all, that in order to compute Q(N), there is no lost of generality to only consider the arithmetic progressions qn + a with gcd(q, a) squarefree.

For any subset $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, we denote by

$$\mathcal{Z}_I = \{(q, a) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \mid \gcd(q, a) \text{ squarefree }, \ q \neq 0 \text{ and } qi + a \text{ is a square } \forall i \in I\},$$

and by $z_I = \# \mathcal{Z}_I$ its cardinality. We will prove that if I is a finite subset of \mathbb{N} of cardinality bigger than 3 then $z_I < \infty$. Moreover, notice that, if $J \subseteq I$, then $\mathcal{Z}_I \subseteq \mathcal{Z}_J$, so $z_I \le z_J$. Since we are interested on the subsets I such that $z_I = 0$, if there is some subset J with $z_J = 0$, the same is true for all the subsets I containing J. Observe also that for all $I \subset \{0, \ldots, N-1\}$ with # I > Q(N) we have by definition that $z_I = 0$.

Given q and a integers, $q \neq 0$, we denote by

$$S(q, a) = \{i \in \mathbb{N} \mid qi + a \text{ is a square } \}$$

the set of values where the arithmetic progression takes its squares, and, given $N \geq 2$, by $S_N(q, a)$ the set $S(q, a) \cap \{0, 1, ..., N-1\}$. Therefore $\#S_N(q, a) \leq Q(N)$.

The following lemma is elementary, and its proof is left to the reader.

Lemma 2.

- (i) $S(24,1) = \{\mathcal{GP}_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ the progression of generalized pentagonal numbers.
- (ii) $S(8,1) = \{T_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ the progression[‡] of triangular numbers.

^{*}It has been proved in [15] that the first quadratic number field where there are five squares in arithmetic progression is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{409})$; and that the unique non-constant arithmetic progressions of five squares over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{409})$, up to equivalence, is $7^2, 13^2, 17^2, 409, 23^2$

 $^{{}^{\}dagger}\mathcal{GP}_k = k(3k-1)/2$ is the sequence A001318 in [22].

 $^{{}^{\}ddagger}\mathcal{T}_k = k(k+1)/2$ is the sequence A000217 in [22]

Given any subset of the naturals numbers $I \subset \mathbb{N}$, we will numerate its elements by increasing order starting from n_0 , so if n_i and n_{i+1} are elements in I, then $n_i < n_{i+1}$ and there is no element $m \in I$ such that $n_i < m < n_{i+1}$.

We define the following three operations on the subsets $I \subset \mathbb{N}$:

• Let $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n_0 + i > 0$, we denote by I + i the translated subset

$$I + i = \{ j \in \mathbb{N} \mid j - i \in I \}.$$

• Let $r \in \mathbb{Q}^*$ such that $ri \in \mathbb{N}$ for all $i \in I$, we denote by rI the subset of \mathbb{N} defined by

$$rI = \{ri \mid i \in I\}.$$

• If I is a finite set, $I = \{n_0, \dots, n_k\}$, we denote by I^s , the symmetric of I, as

$$I^s = \{ n_0 + n_k - i \mid i \in I \}.$$

Therefore a finite subset is symmetric if $I^s = I$.

We say that two finite subsets I and J of \mathbb{N} are equivalent, and denote by $I \sim J$, if there exists $I = I_0, I_1, \ldots, I_k = J$ finite subsets of \mathbb{N} such that $I_{i+1} = I_i + j$ or $I_{i+1} = I_i$ or $I_{i+1} = I_i^s$, for all $i = 1, \ldots, k-1$.

Given a finite subset I of \mathbb{N} , we will denote by n_I the positive integer $\sum_{i \in I} 2^i$. Then we have a bijection between the set of finite subsets of \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{N} (the empty set corresponding to 0). Given two finite subsets I and J of \mathbb{N} , we will say that I < J if $n_I < n_J$.

We say that a finite subset I of \mathbb{N} is primitive if $0 \in I$, the elements of I are coprime and $n_I \leq n_{I^s}$. Then any finite subset of \mathbb{N} is equivalent to a unique primitive subset.

Lemma 3. Let I and J be two finite subsets of \mathbb{N} . If $I \sim J$, then $z_I = z_J$.

Proof. This is a straightforward computation, just by checking the three possible elementary equivalences. For example, if J=mI, for $m\in\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, we may assign to every element $(q,a)\in\mathcal{Z}_J$, the element $(\frac{qm}{d^2},\frac{a}{d^2})\in\mathcal{Z}_I$, where d^2 is the largest square dividing $\gcd(qm,a)$. And to every element $(q,a)\in\mathcal{Z}_I$, the element $(\frac{qm}{d^2},\frac{am^2}{d^2})\in\mathcal{Z}_J$, where $d=\gcd(q,a,m)$. The assertion in the case J=I+i is elementary.

In the last case $J = I^s$, we may restrict ourselves to the case $0 \in I$. Then, we only need to observe that to every element $(q, a) \in \mathcal{Z}_J$, the element (-q, a + q(N-1)) is in \mathcal{Z}_I .

Let $I = \{n_0, n_1, \dots, n_k\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ be a finite subset such that k > 1 and K be a field. We denote by C_I the curve in $\mathbb{P}^k(K)$ defined by the system of equations

$$C_I: \left\{ (n_{i+2} - n_{i+1})X_{i-1}^2 - (n_{i+2} - n_i)X_i^2 + (n_{i+1} - n_i)X_{i+1}^2 = 0 \right\}_{i=1,\dots,k-1}.$$

This curve is defined over any field, and, if the characteristic of the field is not 2, it contains 2^k trivial points \mathcal{T}_I corresponding to the values $X_i^2 = 1$ for all i = 0, ..., k.

The following proposition collects some useful facts about the curves C_I that will be used in the sequel.

Proposition 4. Let $I = \{n_0, n_1, \dots, n_k\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ be a finite subset such that k > 1 and C_I be the associated curve. Then

(1) If K is a field with characteristic 0, then the curve C_I is a non-singular projective curve of genus $g_k = (k-3)2^{k-2} + 1$.

- (2) If k > 2, then for any $i \in I$, the natural map $C_I \to C_{I \setminus \{i\}}$ is of degree 2 and ramified on the 2^{k-1} points with $X_i = 0$.
- (3) If J is another finite set with $I \sim J$, then $C_I \cong C_J$, with the isomorphism being the identity or the natural involution in \mathbb{P}^k given by

$$[x_0,\ldots,x_k]\mapsto [x_k,\ldots,x_0].$$

(4) Consider the map $\iota: C_I \to \mathbb{P}^k$ defined by $\iota([x_0 : \cdots : x_k]) = [x_0^2 : \cdots : x_k^2]$. Then there is a natural bijection between $\iota(C_I(\mathbb{Q}) \setminus \mathcal{T}_I)$ and \mathcal{Z}_I .

Proof. The first three items are well–known facts on the curves C_I (cf. [1]). Now, we prove last statement. By (3), we may suppose that I is primitive, and, in particular, $n_0 = 0$. On one hand, let $[x_0 : \cdots : x_k] \in C_I(\mathbb{Q}) \setminus \mathcal{T}_I$, and without lost of generality assume that x_0, \ldots, x_k are coprime integers. Then the corresponding element of \mathcal{Z}_I is $((x_1^2 - x_0^2)/n_2, x_0^2)$. On the other hand, let $(q, a) \in \mathcal{Z}_I$. Then the point $[a : a + n_1q : \cdots : a + n_kq]$ belongs to $\iota(C_I(\mathbb{Q}) \setminus \mathcal{T}_I)$.

In fact, in order to compute \mathcal{Z}_I , we may carry out it modulo the group of automorphisms Υ_I of the curve C_I generated by the automorphisms $\tau_i(x_i) = -x_i$ and $\tau_i(x_i) = x_j$ if $i \neq j$, for $i = 0, \ldots, k$. Notice that $C_I(\mathbb{Q})/\Upsilon \cong \text{Im}(\iota)$.

Finally, observe that, if $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ only has three elements, the corresponding curve C_I is a genus 0 curve. And since it has rational points, $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Q})$ and hence $z_I = \infty$.

3. First elementary cases

In order to study the first values of N, we will consider the subsets $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ of cardinality 4. In this case the curve C_I has genus 1. Moreover, C_I is an elliptic curve over any field, since C_I always has the rational points \mathcal{T}_I .

Proposition 5. Given any subset I of $\{0, 1, ..., 6\}$ with four elements, we have that $z_I = \infty$ unless I is equivalent to one of the following five subsets:

$$\{0,1,2,3\},\ \{0,1,3,4\},\ \{0,1,4,5\},\ \{0,2,3,5\}\ and\ \{0,1,5,6\}.$$

In which case, $z_I = 0$.

Proof. To prove that $z_I = 0$ for the given finite sets I in the proposition, one only needs to show that $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = \mathcal{T}_I$. Or, equivalently, that $\#C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = 8$. Using standard transformations (see section 4), one may put the corresponding elliptic curves in Weierstrass form, and then compute the Cremona reference. We obtain the elliptic curves 24a1, 48a3, 15a3, 120a2 and 240a3 respectively. All of them have rank 0 and torsion subgroup isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$. Hence $\#C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = 8$ in these cases. For all the other cases, one easily shows that the rank of the corresponding elliptic curve C_I is 1. Therefore, they have an infinite number of points.

Observe that all the subsets in the proposition with $z_I = 0$ are symmetric subsets. We will see that this is true for any subset with four elements.

Corollary 6.
$$Q(6) = Q(7) = 4$$
 and $Q(8) = 5$.

Proof. First of all, we clearly have that $4 = Q(5) \le Q(6) \le 5$. Suppose we have a primitive subset I of 5 elements inside $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ such that $z_I > 0$. Notice that

if I does not contain 5, $I \setminus \{5\}$ will be $\{0,1,2,3,4\}$, which contains $J = \{0,1,2,3\}$. Since $z_J = 0$ by the proposition 5, $z_I = 0$. So $I = \{0,1,2,3,4,5\} \setminus \{i\}$ for 0 < i < 5, and we have 4 cases: if i = 1 or i = 4, then I contains $\{2,3,4,5\} \sim \{0,1,2,3\}$ or $\{0,1,2,3\}$ respectively, and we have again the same result; and if i = 2 or i = 3, then I contains $\{0,1,3,4\}$ or $\{1,2,4,5\} \sim \{0,1,3,4\}$, and applying another case of proposition 5, we conclude.

Now, we are going to prove that Q(7) = 4. We again proceed with the same strategy. We consider I a primitive subset of $\{0, \ldots, 6\}$ with five elements and we show that $z_I = 0$ if we find a subset J of I with four elements appearing in the list of the proposition 5, hence with $z_J = 0$. We may suppose that $I = \{0, i, j, k, 6\}$ for some 0 < i < j < k < 6. We have 10 cases, but only 6 cases to consider because the symmetries: the first case $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 6\}$ is by Fermat; the second case $\{0, 1, 2, 4, 6\}$ because it contains $\{0, 2, 4, 6\} \sim \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$, hence again by Fermat; $\{0, 1, 2, 5, 6\}$ contains $\{0, 1, 5, 6\}$ and the last subset $\{0, 2, 3, 4, 6\}$ contains $\{0, 2, 4, 6\} \sim \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$.

Now, since $Q(8) \leq Q(7) + 1 = 5$, to prove Q(8) = 5 we only need to exhibit an arithmetic progression with five squares in the first 8 terms, and the arithmetic progression 1 + 24n do the job. Note that $S_8(24, 1) = \{0, 1, 2, 5, 7\}$.

So, the first strategy to detect subsets I with cardinality bigger that 3 and $z_I = 0$ is to find a subset J of I with four elements such that $z_J = 0$. This will be carry out considering the associated elliptic curve E_J and showing that it only contains the (eight) trivial points \mathcal{T}_J . In the next section we will study some necessary conditions where this happens.

4. Four squares in arithmetic progressions

Let be $I = \{n_0, n_1, n_2, n_3\}$ with $n_0 < n_1 < n_2 < n_3$. For any $(q, a) \in \mathcal{Z}_I$, consider the eight points in the three dimensional projective space $[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3] \in \mathbb{P}^3$ such that $x_i^2 = qn_j + a$. They all lie in the curve C_I given by the system of equations

$$C_I: \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (n_2-n_1)X_0^2-(n_2-n_0)X_1^2+(n_1-n_0)X_2^2=0, \\ (n_3-n_2)X_1^2-(n_3-n_1)X_2^2+(n_2-n_1)X_3^2=0. \end{array} \right.$$

We have that C_I is an elliptic curve since it has genus 1 (being the intersection of two quadric surfaces in \mathbb{P}^3) and it has the rational points $[1, \pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1]$.

Let us denote

$$m_0 = \frac{n_1 - n_0}{n_2 - n_1}, \quad m_1 = \frac{n_3 - n_2}{n_2 - n_1}.$$

Note that they are both strictly positive rational numbers. Then we may write the equations of C_I as

$$C_I: \begin{cases} X_0^2 - (m_0 + 1)X_1^2 + m_0X_2^2 = 0, \\ m_1X_1^2 - (m_1 + 1)X_2^2 + X_3^2 = 0. \end{cases}$$

Now, we parametrize the first equation as

$$[X_0: X_1: X_2] = [(m_0+1) - 2(m_0+1)t + t^2: (m_0+1) - 2t + t^2: (m_0+1) - t^2].$$

Next, we substitute X_0, X_1, X_2 in the second equation and we obtain a new equation of the curve, depending on the parameter t (note that $t = (X_2 - X_0)/(X_2 + X_1)$):

$$C_I: X_3^2 = t^4 + 4m_1t^3 - 2(m_0 + 4m_1 + 2m_1m_0 + 1)t^2 + 4m_1(m_0 + 1)t + (m_0 + 1)^2.$$

Observe that the set I is symmetric if and only if $m_0 = m_1$.

Lemma 7. Let E_I be the elliptic curve defined by the Weierstrass form

$$E_I: y^2 = x(x - m_0 m_1)(x + m_0 + m_1 + 1).$$

Then, there exists a \mathbb{Q} -isomorphism $\phi: C_I \longrightarrow E_I$ such that $\phi([1,1,1,1]) = [0,1,0]$. Furthermore, if we denote by $\mathcal{F}_I = \phi(\mathcal{T}_I)$, then $\#\mathcal{F}_I = 8$.

Proof. The proof of the existence of the isomorphism ϕ is an straightforward computation. For example, it may be carried out using the formulae in [8, section 7.2]. The set \mathcal{F}_I is described by the table below

i	P_i	$Q_i = \phi(P_i)$
0	[1, 1, 1, 1]	$\mathcal{O} = [0, 1, 0]$
1	[-1, 1, -1, 1]	(0,0)
2	[-1, 1, 1, -1]	$(m_0m_1,0)$
3	[-1, -1, 1, 1]	$(-m_0 - m_1 - 1, 0)$
4	[1, 1, -1, 1]	$(-m_1, -m_1(m_0+1))$
5	[1, -1, 1, 1]	$(-m_0, m_0(m_1+1))$
6	[-1, 1, 1, 1]	$(m_0(m_0+m_1+1), -m_0(m_0+1)(m_0+m_1+1))$
7	[1, 1, 1, -1]	$(m_1(m_0+m_1+1), m_1(m_1+1)(m_0+m_1+1))$

Therefore, we have $\#\mathcal{F}_I = 8$ since $m_0, m_1 > 0$.

Corollary 8. The set \mathcal{F}_I is a subgroup of E_I if and only if I is symmetric. Furthermore, if I is not symmetric, then $z_I > 0$.

Proof. First, observe that the opposites of the non-Weierstrass points on \mathcal{F}_I do not belong to \mathcal{F}_I unless $m_0 = m_1$. Since m_0 and m_1 are strictly positive numbers, then, for example, $-Q_5 = (-m_0, -m_0(m_1+1)) \in \mathcal{F}_I$ if and only if it is equal to Q_4 . This shows one implication. Finally, if $m_0 = m_1$, one easily checks that the non-Weierstrass points are of order 4, and their doubles are equal to the point $(m_0m_1, 0)$. That is, $\mathcal{F}_I \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$.

Remark 9. One may use the isomorphism ϕ in order to find explicitly which arithmetic progression corresponds to the set of points $\{-P_4, -P_5, -P_6, -P_7\}$. If we suppose I is primitive, in particular with $n_0 = 0$, so it is of the form $\{0, n_1, n_2, n_3\}$, with n_1, n_2 and n_3 coprime, then the arithmetic progression a + nq given by

$$\begin{cases} a = ((n_1 + n_2 - n_3)^2 - 4n_1n_2)^2, \\ q = 2^3(n_1 + n_2 - n_3)(n_1 - n_2 - n_3)(n_1 - n_2 + n_3), \end{cases}$$

has squares for $n = 0, n_1, n_2, n_3$. Using this construction, we show in the table below the arithmetic progression (q, a) for all the equivalence classes of 4-tuples $I \subset \{0, \ldots, N-1\}$, for $5 \leq N \leq 7$, such that $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) \neq \mathcal{T}_I$. Note that in all of these cases rank $E_I(\mathbb{Q}) = 1$.

N	I	An Arithmetic progression (q, a) such that $I \subset \mathcal{S}(q, a)$
5	$\{0, 1, 2, 4\}$	(120, 49)
6	$\{0, 1, 2, 5\}$	(24,1)
0	$\{0, 1, 3, 5\}$	(168, 121)
	$\{0, 1, 2, 6\}$	(840, 1)
7	$\{0, 1, 3, 6\}$	(8,1)
'	$\{0, 2, 3, 6\}$	(280, 529)
	$\{0, 1, 4, 6\}$	(24, 25)

Remark 10. One even show that, if I is not symmetric, the subgroup generated by \mathcal{F}_I is infinite, unless $m_1^2 + m_1 + 1$ is a square and $m_0 = -(m_1 + 2 - 2\sqrt{m_1^2 + m_1 + 1})/3$, or $m_1^2 + m_1$ is a square and $m_0 = m_1 + 2\sqrt{m_1^2 + m_1}$, which are in fact the same case by interchanging m_0 and m_1 . Or equivalentment, E_I is \mathbb{Q} -isomorphic to

$$E_t: y^2 = x(x+1+4t)(x+16t^3(t+1)),$$
 for some $t \in \mathbb{Q}$.

In this case,

$$\langle P: P \in \mathcal{F}_I \rangle = \mathcal{F}_I \cup \{-P_4, -P_5, -P_6, -P_7\} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}.$$

Furthermore, the points $-P_4, -P_5, -P_6, -P_7$ correspond to the arithmetic progression with a=0 and q=1. Thus, if we suppose that I is primitive then there exist $s_1, s_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n_1 = s_1^2, n_2 = s_2^2$ and $n_3 = (s_1 \pm s_2)^2$.

We have seen that if $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ has four elements, a necessary condition to have $z_I = 0$ is that I is symmetric. In the sequel, we obtain more necessary conditions, some of them under the Parity Conjecture.

Observe that the number of symmetric subsets with 4 elements contained in $\{0, 1, ..., N\}$ may be explicitly computed in terms of N (and it is the sequence A002623 in [22], with n = N - 3), and it is almost equal to a polynomial of degree 3 in N:

$$\frac{N^3}{12} - \frac{7N^2}{8} + \frac{35N}{12} - \frac{49}{16} + \frac{(-1)^N}{16}.$$

Since the number of subsets with 4 elements is a polynomial of degree 4 in N, there are $2/N + O(N^{-2})$ symmetric subsets among all the subsets with four elements. We do not know how many of the equivalence clases of subsets with four elements are symmetric, but we suspect is of the same order.

In the primitive symmetric case, that is if $I = \{0, n_1, n_2, n_1 + n_2\}$ with $0 < n_1 < n_2$ coprime integers, we have that a \mathbb{Q} -isomorphism $\psi : C_I \longrightarrow E'_t$ exists, where

$$E'_t: y^2 = x(x+1)(x+t^2),$$
 and $t = n_2/n_1$.

In this case,
$$\psi(\mathcal{T}_I) = \{\mathcal{O}, (0,0), (-1,0), (-t^2,0), (\pm t, \pm t(t+1))\}.$$

The first remark is that there are plenty of symmetric subsets I with four elements such that $z_I > 0$, and even with infinite number of elements. For example, this is the case if the torsion subgroup has more than 8 elements. This case only may occur, by Mazur's theorem, if the torsion subgroup of $E_t(\mathbb{Q})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$. Or, equivalently, some of the four 4-torsion points given by the points with x-coordinate equal to $\pm t$ is the double of some rational point. We use

the standard formulae (or by a 2-descent argument) to obtain that this happens if and only if the x-coordinate and the x-coordinate +1 are squares.

Lemma 11. Let t be a positive rational number, then

$$E_t'(\mathbb{Q})_{tors} \cong \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z} & \text{if } t = \left(s - \frac{1}{4s}\right)^2, \text{ for some } s \in \mathbb{Q}, \\ \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} & \text{otherwise.} \end{array} \right.$$

In fact, we may exactly characterize which primitive sets have their corresponding elliptic curve with torsion subgroup of order 16, and even which arithmetic progressions correspond to the torsion points.

Corollary 12. Let $I = \{0, n_1, n_2, n_1 + n_2\}$ be a primitive symmetric subset of \mathbb{N} . Then the elliptic curve E_I has torsion isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if n_1 , n_2 and $n_1 + n_2$ are squares. The torsion points of E_I correspond to the constant arithmetic progression along with the arithmetic progressions with a = 0 and q = 1 and with $a = n_1 + n_2$ and q = -1.

Proof. Since $t = n_2/n_1$ is a square, both n_1 and n_2 are squares. Since $t + 1 = (n_1 + n_2)/n_1$ is also a square, also $n_3 = n_1 + n_2$ is a square. Trivially, the arithmetic progression with a = 0 and q = 1 verifies that $a_{n_i} = a + n_i q = n_i$ are squares, and the one with $a = n_1 + n_2$ and q = -1 verifies that $a_{n_i} = a + n_i q = n_{3-i}$ are also squares. And they correspond to the torsion points of order 8.

Concerning the general symmetric case, we find one parametric subfamilies, and even two parametric subfamilies of E'_t , with other rational points apart of the trivial ones.

Example 13. Let z_1 and z_2 be non-zero rational numbers, and consider

$$t = \frac{1}{4} \left(z_1 + \frac{1}{z_1} + z_2 + \frac{1}{z_2} \right)$$
 and $x = \frac{-(z_1 + z_2)^2}{4z_1 z_2}$.

Then $x(x+1)(x+t^2)$ is a square. Moreover, if $z_1, z_2 \neq \pm 1, z_1 \neq \pm z_2$ and $z_1 \neq 1/z_2$, then we obtain a non-trivial point in E'_t .

Recall that the Parity Conjecture asserts that any elliptic curve E defined over \mathbb{Q} (or a general number field) that has root number W(E) = -1 has odd rank (and, in particular, infinitely many rational points). But the root number is easily computable, even in some families. In our case we have an explicit description.

Proposition 14. Let 0 < a < b be coprime integers, and let $E_{a,b}$ be the elliptic curve defined by

$$E_{a,b}: y^2 = x(x+a^2)(x+b^2).$$

Then W(E) = -1 if and only if $\alpha(a, b) \equiv \mu_2(a, b) \pmod{2}$, where

 $\alpha(a,b) = \#\{p \ odd \ prime | p \ divides \ ab\}$

$$+\#\{p \ prime \mid p \ divides \ (b^2-a^2) \ and \ p \equiv 1 \ (\text{mod } 4)\},$$

$$\mu_2(a,b) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } ab \equiv 4 \pmod{8} \text{ or } ab \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \text{ and } \frac{(b^2 - a^2)}{8} \equiv 1 \pmod{2}, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proof. Recall that the root number W(E) of an elliptic curve E over \mathbb{Q} is equal to the product of local root numbers $W_p(E)$, where p runs over all the prime numbers and infinity. One always has that $W_{\infty}(E) = -1$, $W_p(E) = 1$ if the curve has good

or non-split multiplicative reduction at p, and $W_p(E) = -1$ if the curve has split multiplicative reduction at p. Since a and b are coprime integers, $E_{a,b}$ is minimal at an odd prime. The reduction is good if p does not divide $ab(b^2 - a^2)$, and it is split multiplicative if p divides ab, or if p divides $b^2 - a^2$ and -1 is a square modulo p. Hence we obtain $W(E) = (-1)^{\beta}W_2(E)$, where $\beta = \alpha(a,b) + 1$.

Now, to compute the root number at 2, we need to carry out a more detailed analysis, since the reduction can be additive in this case. First, one shows by a change of variables that the curve $E_{a,b}$ is isomorphic to the curve given by the equation $y^2 + xy + ry = x^3 + rx^2$ (this is the so called Tate normal form), where $r = \frac{ab}{4(a+b)^2}$. Given $s \in \mathbb{Q}$, we denote by $v_2(s)$ the 2-adic valuation of s. The curve has good reduction at 2 (hence $W_2(E) = 1$) if and only if $v_2(r) = 0$, so if $v_2(a) = 2$ or $v_2(b) = 2$. And it has split multiplicative reduction (hence $W_2(E) = -1$) if $v_2(r) > 0$, so if $v_2(a) > 2$ or $v_2(b) > 2$, and it has additive reduction otherwise.

When the valuation of r is negative, we will consider the original equation of the curve $E_{a,b}$, which is an integral model. We will need the following standard invariants of the equation:

$$j = j(E_{a,b}) = \frac{2^8(a^4 + b^4 - a^2b^2)^3}{a^4b^4(a+b)^2(a-b)^2}, \qquad c_4 = 2^4(a^4 + b^4 - a^2b^2),$$

$$\Delta = 2^4a^4b^4(a+b)^2(a-b)^2, \qquad c_6 = 2^5(a^2 + b^2)(2b^2 - a^2)(2a^2 - b^2).$$

Now, if $v_2(r) = -1$, hence $v_2(a) = 1$ or v(b) = 1. Then the curve has potentially good reduction (since $v_2(j) = 4$), and we can look at the tables in [17]. We obtain $v_2(\Delta) = 8$, $v_2(c_4) = 4$ and $v_2(c_6) = 6$, hence this information is not enough to obtain the sign. We consider $c_6' = c_6/2^6$ and $c_4' = c_4/2^4$, and we compute $2c_6' + c_4'$ (mod 16). After a case by case computation one obtain that $2c_6' + c_4' \equiv 7 \pmod{16}$, so we are in the case I_1^* . Next, one computes that $2c_6' + c_4' \equiv 23 \not\equiv 7 \pmod{32}$, so the root number $W_2(E)$ is -1 in this case.

Now, if $v_2(a) = v_2(b) = 0$, we need to take in account the valuations $v_2(a+b)$ and $v_2(a-b)$. First we need to determine when the curve $E_{a,b}$ has potentially multiplicative reduction in order to apply the formulae by Rohrlich [20]. This is equivalent to the case $v_2(j) < 0$. Since in our case $v_2(j) = 8 - 2v_2(a-b) - 2v_2(a+b)$, we have potentially multiplicative reduction if and only if $v_2(a-b) + v_2(a+b) \ge 4$. In this case, the root number is computed as follows: if $s \in \mathbb{Q}$, we denote by $\overline{s} = s2^{-v_2(s)}$. Then, we obtain that $W_2(E) \equiv -\overline{c_6} \pmod{4}$. But observe that

$$\overline{c_6} = \overline{(a^2 + b^2)}(2b^2 - a^2)(2a^2 - b^2) \equiv \overline{(a^2 + b^2)} \equiv 1 \pmod{4},$$

hence $W_2(E) = -1$ in this case.

Finally, we need to consider the potentially good reduction case, with $v_2(a) = v_2(b) = 0$. In this case, we have $v_2(a-b) + v_2(a+b) = 3$. Therefore, we obtain that $v_2(\Delta) = 10$, $v_2(c_4) = 4$ and $v_2(c_6) = 6$. One easily shows that the necessary condition $\overline{c_6} \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ for the case I_2^* in the tables of [17] is always satisfied, so we obtain that $W_2(E)$ is 1 in this case.

In summary, we obtain $W_2(E) = 1$ if and only if $v_2(ab) = 0$ and $v_2(a^2 - b^2) = 3$, or $v_2(ab) = 2$.

Corollary 15. Let $0 < n_1 < n_2$ be coprime integers and $I = \{0, n_1, n_2, n_1 + n_2\}$. Assume that the Parity Conjecture holds for the curve E_{n_1,n_2} , and that $\alpha(n_1,n_2) \equiv \mu_2(n_1,n_2) \pmod{2}$. Then $z_I = \infty$.

Remark 16. Cohn [9] studied the special symmetric case $\{0, 2, n, n+2\}$ when $n \le 100$. The corollary above gives an arithmetic sufficient condition to determine if there is an arithmetic progression with squares at the positions $\{0, 2, n, n+2\}$ for any positive integer n. This condition is that the number of odd primes dividing n has the same parity than the number of primes congruent to 1 mod 4 dividing $n^2 - 4$. The disadvantage is that this condition is under the Parity Conjecture for the elliptic curve $E_{2,n}$. Note that we may suppose that n is odd since in the even case we can reduce $\{0, 2, n, n+2\}$ to $\{0, 1, n/2, (n+1)/2\}$.

5. FIVE SQUARES IN ARITHMETIC PROGRESSIONS: THE TECHNIQUE

We will see in section 6 that the results of section 4 are not enough to show the Rudin's Conjecture even for small values of N. In this section we will study how to prove, for some subsets I with 5 elements, that $z_I = 0$ even if it is not zero for any subset J of I with 4 elements. Moreover, we will be able to determine \mathcal{Z}_I in some cases.

In order to prove these type of results, we need to be able to compute the rational points of some genus 5 curves whose Jacobians are product of elliptic curves, all of them of rank greater than 0. Hence it is not possible to apply the classical Chabauty method (see [7], [10], [13], [23], [24], [19]). We will instead apply the covering collections technique, as developed by Coombes and Grant [11], Wetherell [26] and others, and specifically a modification of what is now called the elliptic curve Chabauty method developed by Flynn and Wetherell in [14] and by Bruin in [4]. In fact, we will follow the same technique we applied in [16], though we could may be use also a similar technique as the one we use in [15] to study 5 squares in arithmetic progression over quadratic fields.

First, we fix the notations. We consider a primitive subset $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ with 5 elements, and C_I the associated curve as in proposition 4. Then if we want to prove that $z_I = 0$, this will be equivalent to prove that $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ only contains the trivial points \mathcal{T}_I . In fact, since the genus of C_I is greater than one, its set of rational points always is finite, hence we may even try to compute them.

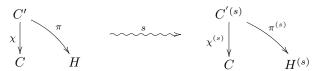
Observe that C_I has 5 different maps to the elliptic curves corresponding to C_J , for J a subset of I with four elements. As we have already seen in the previous section, the corresponding elliptic curves have all its 2-torsion points defined over \mathbb{Q} , a fact that we will use to build unramified coverings of C_I .

The method has two parts. Suppose we have a curve C over a number field K, and an unramified map $\chi:C'\to C$ of degree greater than one, may be defined over a finite extension L of K, along with a nice quotient $C'\to H$, for example a genus 1 quotient. We consider the different unramified coverings $\chi^{(s)}:C'^{(s)}\to C$ build by all the twists of the given one. We obtain that

$$C(K) = \bigcup_{s} \chi^{(s)}(\{P \in C'^{(s)}(L) : \chi^{(s)}(P) \in C(K)\}),$$

the union being disjoint. Moreover, only a finite number of twists have rational points, and the finite set of twists with points locally everywhere can be explicitly described. The method depends first on being able to compute the set of twists, and second, on being able to compute the points $P \in C'^{(s)}(L)$ such that $\chi^{(s)}(P) \in$

C(K), by computing their images in $H^{(s)}(L)$.



In our case, the coverings we are searching for will be defined over \mathbb{Q} , but the genus 1 quotients of such coverings are, in general, not defined over \mathbb{Q} , but in a quadratic or in a biquadratic extension. The way we will construct the coverings (factorizing quartic polynomials) will also give us the genus 1 quotients and the field where they are all defined.

In order now to construct the coverings of the curve C_I , we first rewrite the curve as the projectivization (and designal designal arization) of a curve in \mathbb{A}^3 given by equations of the form $y_1^2 = p_1(x)$ and $y_2^2 = p_2(x)$, where $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ are separable degree 4 polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{Q} . This is possible because of the special form of the curve (essentially, because it has two degree 2 maps to elliptic curves that correspond to involutions that commute with each other), and in our case we will see it can be done in 10 different ways.

Next, we will consider a factorization of the polynomials $p_i(x)$ as product of two degree two polynomials $p_{i,1}(x)$ and $p_{i,2}(x)$, may be defined over a larger field K (in our case, a quadratic field). This factorization $p_i(x) = p_{i,1}(x)p_{i,2}(x)$ determines an unramified degree two covering $\chi: F'_i \to F_i$ of the genus 1 curve F_i given by $y_i^2 = p_i(x)$, as we describe in the next proposition.

Proposition 17. Let F be a genus 1 curve over a number field K given by a quartic model of the form $y^2 = q(x)$, where q(x) is a degree four monic polynomial in K[x]. Thus, the curve F has two rational points at infinity, and we fix an isomorphism from F to its Jacobian $E = \operatorname{Jac}(F)$ defined by sending one of these points at infinity to the zero point of E. Then

- (1) Any 2-torsion point of the curve E defined over K corresponds to a factorization of the polynomial q(x) as a product of two quadratic polynomials $q_1(x), q_2(x) \in L[x]$, where L/K is an algebraic extension of degree at most 2
- (2) Given such a 2-torsion point P, the degree two unramified covering χ : $F' \to F$ corresponding to the degree two isogeny ϕ : $E' \to E$ determined by P can be described as the map from the curve F' defined over L, with affine part in \mathbb{A}^3 given by the equations $y_1^2 = q_1(x)$ and $y_2^2 = q_2(x)$ and the map given by $\chi((x, y_1, y_2)) = (x, y_1 y_2)$.
- (3) Given any degree two isogeny $\phi: E' \to E$, consider the Selmer group $Sel(\phi)$ as a subgroup of $K^*/(K^*)^2$. Let $\mathcal{S}_L(\phi)$ be a set of representatives in L of the image of $Sel(\phi)$ in $L^*/(L^*)^2$ via the natural map. For any $\delta \in \mathcal{S}_L(\phi)$, define the curve $F'^{(\delta)}$ given by the equations $\delta y_1^2 = q_1(x)$ and $\delta y_2^2 = q_2(x)$, and the map to F defined by $\chi^{(\delta)}(x, y_1, y_2) = (x, y_1 y_2/\delta^2)$. Then

$$F(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{\delta \in \mathcal{S}_L(\phi)} \chi^{(\delta)}(\{(x,y_1,y_2) \in F'^{(\delta)}(L) : x \in K \text{ or } x = \infty\}).$$

Proof. First we prove (1) and (2). Suppose we have such a factorization $q(x) = q_1(x) q_2(x)$ over some extension L/K, with $q_1(x)$ and $q_2(x)$ monic quadratic polynomials. Then the covering $\chi: F' \to F$ from the curve F' defined over L, with

affine part in \mathbb{A}^3 given by the equations $y_1^2 = q_1(x)$ and $y_2^2 = q_2(x)$ and the map given by $\chi((x, y_1, y_2)) = (x, y_1 y_2)$, is an unramified degree two covering. So F' is a genus 1 curve, and clearly it contains the preimage of the two points at infinity, which are rational over L, hence it is isomorphic to an elliptic curve E'. Choosing such isomorphism by sending one of the preimages of the fixed point at infinity to \mathcal{O} , we obtain a degree two isogeny $E' \to E$, which corresponds to a choice of a two torsion point.

So, if the polynomial q(x) decomposes completely in K, the assertions (1) and (2) are clear since the number of decompositions $q(x) = q_1(x) q_2(x)$ as above is equal to the number of points of exact order 2. Now the general case is proved by Galois descent: a two torsion point P of E is defined over K if and only if the degree two isogeny $E' \to E$ is defined over K, so if and only if the corresponding curve F' is defined over K. Hence the polynomials $q_1(x)$ and $q_2(x)$ should be defined over an extension of E of degree E and in case they are not defined over E the polynomials E and E are not defined over E and E are not defined over E are not defined over E are not defined over E and E are not defined over E are not defined over E are not defined over E and E are not defined over E and E are not defined over E are not defined ov

Now we show the last assertion. First, notice that the curves $F'^{(\delta)}$ are twisted forms (or principal homogeneous spaces) of F', and it becomes isomorphic to F' over the quadratic extension of L adjoining the square root of δ .

Consider the case where L=K. So F' is defined over K. For any $\delta \in \operatorname{Sel}(\phi)$, consider the associated homogeneous space $D^{(\delta)}$; it is a curve of genus 1 along with a degree 2 map $\phi^{(\delta)}$ to E, without points in any local completion, and isomorphic to E' (and compatible with ϕ) over the quadratic extension $K(\sqrt{d})$. Moreover, it is determined by such properties (see section 8.2 in [8]). So, by this uniqueness, it must be isomorphic to $F'^{(\delta)}$ along with $\chi^{(\delta)}$. The last assertion also is clear from the definition of the Selmer group.

Now, the case $L \neq K$. The assertion is proved just observing that the commutativity of the diagram

where the map $Sel(\phi) \to Sel(\phi_L)$ is the one sending the corresponding homogeneous space to its base change to L.

In order to apply the method to a 5-tuple $I \subset \mathbb{N}$, we first explain how to construct models of C_I as the ones described above. We need first to choose a subset $J = \{n_0, n_1, n_2\} \subset I$ with three elements, which determines a partition $I = J \sqcup \{n_3, n_4\}$ of I, the n_i not necessarily ordered, and everything will depend of that choice. Second, we write the equations of C_I of the form

$$C_I : \begin{cases} X_0^2 = (m_0 + 1)X_1^2 - m_0 X_2^2, \\ X_3^2 = -m_1 X_1^2 + (m_1 + 1)X_2^2, \\ X_4^2 = -m_2 X_1^2 + (m_2 + 1)X_2^2, \end{cases}$$

where

$$m_0 = \frac{n_1 - n_0}{n_2 - n_1}, \qquad m_1 = \frac{n_3 - n_2}{n_2 - n_1}, \qquad m_2 = \frac{n_4 - n_2}{n_2 - n_1}.$$

Now, we parametrize the first equation as it has been done on section 4:

$$[X_0: X_1: X_2] = [(m_0+1)-2(m_0+1)t+t^2: (m_0+1)-2t+t^2: (m_0+1)-t^2],$$

and substituting in the next two equations, we obtain the new equations of the curve, depending on the parameter t:

$$C_I: \{y_1^2 = p_1(t), y_2^2 = p_2(t)\},\$$

where, for $i = 1, 2, y_i = X_{2+i}$ and

$$p_i(t) = t^4 + 4m_i t^3 - 2(m_0 + 4m_i + 2m_i m_0 + 1)t^2 + 4m_i (m_0 + 1)t + (m_0 + 1)^2.$$

For i=1,2, by lemma 7, we obtain that the genus 1 curve $F_i: y_i^2=p_i(t)$ is \mathbb{Q} -isomorphic to the elliptic curve

$$E_i: y^2 = x(x - m_0 m_i)(x + m_0 + m_i + 1).$$

Next, we need to choose factorizations of the polynomials $p_i(t)$ as product of two quadratic polynomials over some quadratic extension K/\mathbb{Q} . We describe in the next elementary lemma all these factorizations, relating them to the corresponding 2-torsion points in the corresponding elliptic curve E_i .

Lemma 18. For i = 1, 2, denote by

$$D_{i,1} = m_i(1+m_i),$$
 $D_{i,2} = (1+m_i)(m_i+m_0+1),$ $D_{i,3} = m_i(m_i+m_0+1),$

and choose an square root $\alpha_{i,j} = \sqrt{D_{i,j}}$. Then the polynomial $p_i(t)$ factorizes over $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{i,j})$ as a product of two quadratic polynomials $p_{i,j,+}(t)$ and $p_{i,j,-}(t)$, depending on j, where

$$p_{i,1,\pm}(t) = t^2 + 2(m_i \pm \alpha_{i,1})t \mp 2\alpha_{i,1}m_0 - 2m_im_0 - m_0 - 1 - 2m_i \mp 2\alpha_{i,1},$$

$$p_{i,2,\pm}(t) = t^2 + 2(m_i \pm \alpha_{i,2})t + m_0 + 1,$$

$$p_{i,3,\pm}(t) = t^2 + 2(m_i \mp \alpha_{i,3})t - m_0 - 1 - 2m_i \pm 2\alpha_{i,3}.$$

These factorizations correspond, by the proposition 17, to the 2-torsion points in $E_i(\mathbb{Q})$ with x-coordinate equal to $r_{i,1} = m_0 m_i$, $r_{i,2} = -m_0 - m_i - 1$ and $r_{i,3} = 0$.

By the previous lemma and the proposition 17, one can construct Galois covers of C_I with Galois group $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^2$, depending on the choice of the subset $J \subset I$ above and the choice of $j_1, j_2 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. The coverings can be described as the projectivization (and desingularization) of the curve in \mathbb{A}^5 given by

$$C': \{y_{1,+}^2 = p_{1,j_1,+}(t), y_{1,-}^2 = p_{1,j_1,-}(t), y_{2,+}^2 = p_{2,j_2,+}(t), y_{2,-}^2 = p_{2,j_2,-}(t)\},\$$

which is a curve of genus 17, along with the map $\chi: C' \to C_I$ defined as

$$\chi(t, y_{1,+}, y_{1,-}, y_{2,+}, y_{2,-}) = (t, y_{1,+}y_{1,-}, y_{2,+}y_{2,-}).$$

These coverings can be defined over \mathbb{Q} , although we choose to show them in this form defined over the field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j},\alpha_{2,j})$, which is at most a biquadratic extension of \mathbb{Q} , in order to consider appropriate genus 1 quotients of them.

Next, we choose one genus 1 quotient of the form

$$H_{\pm,\pm}: z^2 = p_{1,j_1,\pm}(t)p_{2,j_2,\pm}(t).$$

There are four such quotients, but depending on the degree of the field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j},\alpha_{2,j})$ there can be all of them conjugates over \mathbb{Q} , or to have two conjugacy classes if the degree is 2, or all independent if the degree is 1.

For any element $\delta = (\delta_1, \delta_2) \in (\mathbb{Q}^*)^2$, we consider the twist $C'^{(\delta_1, \delta_2)}$ of the cover χ , given by

$$C'^{(\delta_1,\delta_2)}: \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \delta_1 y_{1,+}^2 = p_{1,j_1,+}(t) &, & \delta_1 y_{1,-}^2 = p_{1,j_1,-}(t) \\ \delta_2 y_{2,+}^2 = p_{2,j_2,+}(t) &, & \delta_2 y_{2,-}^2 = p_{2,j_2,-}(t) \end{array} \right\},$$

along with the map

$$\chi^{(\delta_1,\delta_2)}(t,y_{1,+},y_{1,-},y_{2,+},y_{2,-}) = (t,(y_{1,+}y_{1,-})/\delta_1^2,(y_{2,+}y_{2,-})/\delta_2^2).$$

We obtain

$$C(\mathbb{Q}) \subseteq \bigcup_{\delta \in \mathfrak{D}} \chi^{(\delta)}(\{(t, y_{1,+}, y_{1,-}, y_{2,+}, y_{2,-}) \in C'^{(\delta)}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1}, \alpha_{2,j_2})) : t \in \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Q})\}),$$

for some finite subset $\mathfrak{D} \subset (\mathbb{Q}^*)^2$. The Proposition 17 allows us to describe the set \mathfrak{D} in terms of the Selmer groups of some isogenies. For any such $\delta = (\delta_1, \delta_2)$, consider the quotients

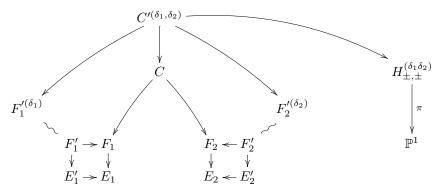
$$H_{\pm,\pm}^{(\delta_1\delta_2)}: \delta_1\delta_2 z^2 = p_{1,j_1,\pm}(t)p_{2,j_2,\pm}(t)$$

which, in fact, only depend on the product $\delta_1 \delta_2$. We obtain

$$\{t \in \mathbb{Q} | \exists Y \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})^4 \text{ such that } (t,Y) \in C'^{(\delta)}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})) \}$$

$$\subseteq \{t \in \mathbb{Q} | \exists w \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2}) \text{ such that } (t,w) \in H^{\delta}_{\pm,\pm}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})) \}.$$

The following diagram illustrates, for a choice of (j_1, j_2) , all the curves and morphisms involved in our problem:



Note that the previous construction also depends on the choice of a subset $J = \{n_0, n_1, n_2\} \subset I$.

In the next lemma we describe a finite set $\mathfrak{S} \subset (\mathbb{Q}^*)$ enough to cover all the possible values t giving points of C_I , modulo the group of automorphisms Υ .

Lemma 19. Let $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ be a 5-tuple. Fix a subset $J = \{n_0, n_1, n_2\} \subset I$ and $j_1, j_2 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. For any i = 1, 2, denote by $\phi_i : E'_i \to E_i$ the 2-isogeny corresponding to the 2-torsion point $(r_{i,j_i}, 0) \in E_i(\mathbb{Q})$, by $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1}, \alpha_{2,j_2})$ and by $\mathcal{S}_L(\phi_i)$ a set of representatives in L of the image of $Sel(\phi_i)$ in $L^*/(L^*)^2$ via the natural map. Finally, denote by $\widetilde{\mathcal{S}}_L(\phi_1)$ a set of representatives of $Sel(\phi_1)$ modulo the subgroup generated by the image of the trivial points \mathcal{T}_I in this Selmer group. Consider the subset $\mathfrak{S} \subset \mathbb{Q}^*$ defined by

$$\mathfrak{S} = \{\delta_1 \delta_2 : \delta_1 \in \widetilde{\mathcal{S}_L}(\phi_1), \delta_2 \in \mathcal{S}_L(\phi_2)\}.$$

Then, for any point $P = (t, y_1, y_2) \in C_I(\mathbb{Q}), \ \tau \in \Upsilon \ and \ \delta \in \mathfrak{S} \ exist \ such \ that$ $\tau(P) = (t', y_1', y_2') \ and \ t' \in \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Q}) \ such \ that \ (t', w) \in H^{\delta}_{\pm,\pm}(L) \ for \ any \ sign \ (\pm, \pm).$ **Proof.** We have described at the previous paragraph that any point $P = (t, y_1, y_2) \in C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ lift to a point in $C'^{(\delta_1, \delta_2)}(L)$ for some $\delta_i \in \text{Sel}(\phi_i)$, for i = 1, 2. Hence determine a point in $H^{\delta_1 \delta_2}_{\pm, \pm}(L)$ with the first coordinate in $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Q})$.

If $P \in C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ has image δ_1 in the Selmer group $\mathrm{Sel}(\phi_1)$, then $\tau(P)$ has image $\delta_1\delta_\tau$, if δ_τ is the image of $\tau(T)$ in $\mathrm{Sel}(\phi_1)$ for some trivial point T with corresponding $\delta_1 = 1$. The previous sentence is true because the automorphisms belongs to Υ correspond to translation by trivial points in the corresponding elliptic curve, if we fix (as we did) the zero point to be a trivial point (see Lemma 11 in [27] for a proof in a special case). But the action of Υ in $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ is transitive on the set of trivial points \mathcal{T}_I .

Now, the method allows us to conclude if we are able to compute, for some choice of a subset $J = \{n_0, n_1, n_2\} \subset I$ and $j_1, j_2 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, and for any $\delta \in \mathfrak{S}$, all the points $(t, w) \in H^{\delta}_{\pm,\pm}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1}, \alpha_{2,j_2}))$ with $t \in \mathbb{Q}$ for some choice of the signs (\pm, \pm) .

This last computation can be done in two steps as follows:

- (1) We first need to determine if there is some point in $H^{\delta}_{\pm,\pm}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2}))$. In the special case $\delta = (1,1)$, the point at infinity always is a rational point. But, in general, this curve (which will have points locally everywhere for the δ 's we choose) may have no rational points if it represents an element of the Tate-Shafarevich group of its Jacobian. We use the method described by Bruin and Stoll in [5]. In particular, we have used their implementation in Magma [3] to determine if this happens.
- (2) Secondly, we will choose an isomorphism with its Jacobian $\operatorname{Jac}(H^{\delta}_{\pm,\pm})$ and then we may use the elliptic curve Chabauty technique as it was developed by Bruin at [4] to compute this set if the rank of its group of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})$ -rational points is less than the degree of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})$ over \mathbb{Q} . We also need to determine a subgroup of finite index of this group to carry out the elliptic curve Chabauty method. Here, we have used the implementation in Magma too.

Hence we have 90 possible choices of J, j_1 and j_2 , and we need to find one of them where we can carry out all these computations for all the elements $\delta \in \mathfrak{S}$. In practice, we only consider the case where the field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})$ is at most a quadratic extension of \mathbb{Q} , essentially because of the computation of the rank and/or a subgroup of finite index in $\operatorname{Jac}(H^{\delta}_{\pm,\pm})(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2}))$ is too expensive computationally for number fields of higher degree.

- 5.1. The algorithm at work. We have implemented in Magma V2.18-8 the algorithm developed above. In the following we describe this algorithm in a few examples. For these 5-tuples $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ we show how it works. In the case that the output of the algorithm is true then we obtain \mathcal{Z}_I , otherwise we give detailed information about the reasons why the algorithm does not work.
- $I = \{0, 1, 2, 4, 7\}$: this is the first case having no rang zero elliptic quotients. First, we need to choose a subset $J \subset I$, and two values $j_1, j_2 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ such that the field $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1}, \alpha_{2,j_2})$ is of degree less or equal to 2. The subset $J = \{1, 4, 7\}$ and the pair $(j_1, j_2) = (2, 1)$ do the job. In this case $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{10})$ and we have the

following factorizations:

$$\begin{array}{ll} p_{1,2,+}(t) = t^2 - 10/3t + 2, & p_{2,1,+}(t) = t^2 + 1/3(-2\sqrt{10} - 10)t + 1/3(4\sqrt{10} + 14), \\ p_{1,2,-}(t) = t^2 - 6t + 2, & p_{2,1,-}(t) = t^2 + 1/3(2\sqrt{10} - 10)t + 1/3(-4\sqrt{10} + 14). \end{array}$$

Note that in fact in this case we have $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,2}) = \mathbb{Q}$. Next step is to compute the set \mathfrak{S} (see Lemma 19). We have $\mathfrak{S} = \{1,2,3,6\}$. Now for any $\delta \in \mathfrak{S}$, we must compute all the points $(t,w) \in H^{\delta}_{\pm,\pm}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{10}))$ with $t \in \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Q})$ for some choice of the signs (\pm,\pm) where

$$H_{\pm,\pm}^{\delta}: \delta w^2 = p_{1,2,\pm}(t)p_{2,1,\pm}(t).$$

For $\delta=1,6$, we have that $\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}H^{\delta}_{+,+}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{10}))=1$ therefore we can apply elliptic curve Chabauty to obtain the possible values of t. For $\delta=1$ (resp. $\delta=6$) we obtain $t=\infty$ (resp. t=0). For the values $t=\infty$ and t=0 we obtain the trivial points $[1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1]\in C_I(\mathbb{Q})$. For $\delta=2,3$, using the method described by Bruin and Stoll in [5] we obtain $H^{\delta}_{-,+}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{10}))=\varnothing$.

The following table shows all the previous data, where at the last column appears the arithmetic progression attached to the corresponding t:

δ	signs	$H_{\text{signs}}^{\delta}(L) = \varnothing$?	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}} H^{\delta}_{\operatorname{signs}}(L)$	t	(q, a)
1	(+, +)	no	1	∞	(0,1)
2	(-, +)	yes	_	_	_
3	(-, +)	yes	_	_	_
6	(+, +)	no	1	0	(0,1)

$$I = \{0, 1, 2, 4, 7\}, J = \{1, 4, 7\}, (j_1, j_2) = (2, 1), L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{10})$$

Looking at the previous table, we obtain $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = \{[1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1]\}$; and therefore $z_I = 0$ if $I = \{0, 1, 2, 4, 7\}$.

• $I = \{0, 1, 2, 5, 7\}$: this is the Rudin sequence. Let be $J = \{2, 5, 7\}$ and $(j_1, j_2) = (3, 2)$. Then we have $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{14})$ and $\mathfrak{S} = \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 5, \pm 10\}$. The following table summarises all the computations made in this case:

_		1 (-)	1 (-)		/
δ	signs	$H_{\text{signs}}^{\delta}(L) = \varnothing$?	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}} H_{\operatorname{signs}}^{\delta}(L)$	t	(q, a)
1	(+,+)	no	1	∞	(0,1)
-1	(+,+)	no	1	_	_
2	(+, -)	no	1	3	(24, 1)
-2	(+, -)	no	1	ı	1
5	(+, -)	no	1	5/6	(24,1)
-5	(+, -)	no	1	ı	1
10	(+,+)	no	1	0	(0,1)
-10	(+,+)	no	1	_	_

 $I = \{0, 1, 2, 5, 7\}, J = \{2, 5, 7\}, (j_1, j_2) = (3, 2), L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{14})$

We have that $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = \{[1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1], [1:\pm 5:\pm 7:\pm 11:\pm 13]\}$. That is, $\mathcal{Z}_I = \{(24,1)\}$ for $I = \{0,1,2,5,7\}$.

• $I = \{0, 1, 3, 7, 8\}$:	this is an interesting example where there appear n	nany
values for t . Looking at	the table below we obtain $\mathcal{Z}_I = \{(120, 1)\}.$	

δ	signs	$H_{\text{signs}}^{\delta}(L) = \varnothing$?	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}} H_{\operatorname{signs}}^{\delta}(L)$	t	(q, a)
1	(+,+)	no	1	$ \begin{array}{c} \infty, 1 \\ 4, 5/6 \end{array} $	(0,1) $(120,1)$
-1	(+,+)	no	1	0, 3/2 $9/5, 3/8$	(0,1) $(120,1)$
2	(+, +)	yes	_	_	_
-2	(+, +)	yes	_	_	

 $I = \{0, 1, 3, 7, 8\}, J = \{1, 3, 7\}, \{j_1, j_2\} = \{3, 3\}, L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{7})$

In this case we have obtained $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = \{[1 : \pm 1 : \pm 1 : \pm 1 : \pm 1], [1 : \pm 11 : \pm 19 : \pm 10], [1 : \pm 11 : \pm 10], [1 :$ $\pm 29:\pm 31]$.

• $I = \{0, 1, 4, 7, 8\}$: in this case we have at less two possible choices of J and (j_1, j_2) where the algorithm works obtaining $z_I = 0$. In the first case $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$:

δ	signs	$H_{\text{signs}}^{\delta}(L) = \varnothing$?	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}} H^{\delta}_{\operatorname{signs}}(L)$	t	(q,a)
1	(+, +)	no	1	$0, \infty$	(0,1)
3	(+, +)	no	1	_	_
7	(+, +)	no	1	_	_
21	(-, +)	no	1	_	_

 $I = \{0, 1, 4, 7, 8\}, J = \{1, 4, 8\}, \{j_1, j_2\} = \{2, 2\}, L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$

And what is more remarkable, also over $L = \mathbb{Q}$ as the table below shows:

δ	signs	$H_{\text{signs}}^{\delta}(L) = \varnothing$?	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}} H^{\delta}_{\operatorname{signs}}(L)$	t	(q, a)		
1	(+, -)	no	0	$1, \infty$	(0,1)		
2	(+,+)	yes	_	_	_		
-3	(+,+)	no	0	0, 2	(0,1)		
-6	(+,+)	yes	_	_	_		
I	$I = \{0, 1, 4, 7, 8\}, J = \{1, 4, 7\}, \{j_1, j_2\} = \{2, 1\}, L = \mathbb{Q}$						

• $I = \{0, 3, 5, 6, 10\}$: this is the second 5-tuple where the algorithm does not work. The first one is $I = \{0, 1, 2, 6, 10\}$ and the reason is that 10 CPU hours was not enough to finish the computations for I. In the following table appear all the subsets $J \subset I$ and pairs (j_1, j_2) such that $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ for some $D \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that in all the previous cases, $p_1(t)$ and $p_2(t)$ do not factorize over \mathbb{Q} . Therefore is enough to check the signs (+,+) and (-,+). For $\delta=1$ we have computed an upper bound of the rank (denoted by rank*) of the Mordell-Weil group of the Jacobians of the curves $H^1_{+,+}(L)$ and $H^1_{-,+}(L)$, where in all those cases is greater than 1. Therefore we can not apply elliptic curve Chabauty and the algorithm outputs false.

J	$\{j_1,j_2\}$	D	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}^* H^1_{+,+}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D}))$	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}^* H^1_{-,+}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D}))$
$\{0, 5, 10\}$	$\{2, 3\}$	-6	2	2
$\{0, 3, 6\}$	$\{2, 3\}$	10	2	2
$\{0, 6, 10\}$	$\{2, 3\}$	-1	3	2
$\{0, 3, 5\}$	$\{2, 3\}$	2	2	3

 $I = \{0, 3, 5, 6, 10\}$

- $I = \{0, 2, 4, 5, 11\}$: this example shows one case where for all subsets $J \subset I$ of three elements and for all $j_1, j_2 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ we have that $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1}, \alpha_{2,j_2})$ is a biquadratic extension of \mathbb{Q} .
- Note that for all the 5-tuples $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ such that our algorithm has worked out we have obtained $z_I = 0$ or $z_I = 1$, except in the case $I = \{0, 13, 24, 33, 49\}$. The table below shows that $\mathcal{Z}_I = \{(24, 49), (-1, 49)\}$, that is $z_I = 2$.

δ	signs	$H_{\text{signs}}^{\delta}(L) = \varnothing$?	$\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}} H^{\delta}_{\operatorname{signs}}(L)$	t	(q, a)
1	(+, +)	no	1	$\infty, 0$ $-12, -2/11$	(0,1) $(-1,49)$
6	(+,+)	no	1	-12	(-1,49)
10	(+, -)	no	0	2,12/11	(-1,49)
11	(+, -)	no	0	2,12/11	(-1,49)
14	(+, -)	no	1	12/11	(-1,49)
21	(+,+)	no	1	$ \begin{array}{r} 16/3 \\ -12 \end{array} $	(24,49) $(-1,49)$
35	(+, -)	no	0	2,12/11	(-1,49)
154	(+, -)	no	0	2,12/11	(-1,49)

 $I = \{0, 13, 24, 33, 49\}, J = \{0, 13, 24\}, \{j_1, j_2\} = \{2, 2\}, L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{165})$

In this case we have obtained $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = \{[1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1:\pm 1], [49:\pm 36:\pm 25:\pm 16:\pm 0], [49:\pm 361:\pm 625:\pm 841:\pm 1225]\}.$

6. Summary of the computations

One of the main objectives of this article is to prove Rudin's conjecture until N=52. For this purpose, we have developed a method based on the computation of the rational points of the curves C_I attached to finite subsets $I \subset \mathbb{N}$. Furthermore, at section 2, we have defined an equivalence relation on the finite subsets of \mathbb{N} such that for any pair of finite subsets I,J such that $I \sim J$ we have that C_I is \mathbb{Q} -isomorphic to C_J , in particular $z_I = z_J$; and such that in any given equivalence class we have a primitive representant. Therefore, we restrict our computations to primitive subsets. Remember that we have attached to any finite subset $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ a positive integer n_I , then we can introduce an ordering on equivalence classes of finite subsets of \mathbb{N} .

First, let us consider the case of finite subsets $I \subset \mathbb{N} \cap \{0, \dots, 51\}$ of cardinality 4. There are 270725 of those subsets. But only 9077 equivalence classes. We have proved at section 4 that the corresponding curves are elliptic curve over \mathbb{Q} . The following table shows the number of curves for a given rank:

rank	0	1	2	3	4
# curves	199	4692	3778	406	2

If we restrict our attention to the symmetric case, we only have 402 equivalence classes:

rank	0	1	2
# curves	190	191	2

Next step it is to compute with subsets of 5 elements. There are 2598960 of those subsets of $\{0,\ldots,51\}$, 117449 equivalence classes. Then we remove all the subsets I in the previous list with a subset J such that $C_J(\mathbb{Q})$ is an elliptic curve of rank 0

and it only has 8 torsion points, since in that case $z_I = 0$. After this sieve, 111338 subsets remain. Now, at section 5, given a subset $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ with 5 elements we have developed a method that allows in some case to determine $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$. The method consists, first to choose a subset $J \subset I$ of three elements and $j_1, j_2 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. There are 90 possible choices. Secondly, to compute the finite set \mathfrak{S} . Afterwards, compute for any $\delta \in \mathfrak{S}$, all the points $(t, w) \in H_{\pm, \pm}^{\delta}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1, j_1}, \alpha_{2, j_2}))$ with $t \in \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{Q})$ for some choice of the signs (\pm, \pm) . This method has worked out in 26589 genus 5 curves C_I . For those, there are 26165 cases such that $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) = \mathcal{T}_I$ and 424 cases such that $C_I(\mathbb{Q}) \neq \mathcal{T}_I$. For the remaining cases, 84749, our method does not work for different reasons. Notice that for a fixed $\delta \in \mathfrak{S}$ and a choice of (\pm, \pm) there are different reason making that our method will not work. First, we have bounded our computations for the case where the field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})$ is at most a quadratic extension of \mathbb{Q} , since the algorithms on Magma that we are going to use are better implemented than in general number fields. There are 34548 cases where all the 90 possible choices give biquadratic fields. For the remaining cases, there are 1033 such that Magma crashed for some unknown reason or there had not been enough time (maximum of 10 CPU hours); and there are 49168 cases where we know the reasons because our method has not worked for them. For a given case, we need to decide if $H_{\pm,\pm}^{\delta}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2}))$ is empty or not. Then the first reason such that our method does not work is:

(BS) Magma does not determine if $H_{\pm,\pm}^{\delta}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2}))$ is empty or not.

Now assuming that we have computed a rational point on $H_{\pm,\pm}^{\delta}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2}))$. Then two more reason may occur:

(Rank) An upper bound of $\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}\operatorname{Jac}(H_{\pm,\pm}^{\delta})(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2}))$ is greater than one. Then, in principle, we can not use the elliptic curve Chabauty method.

(noMW) Magma does not determine a subgroup of finite index on the elliptic curve $\operatorname{Jac}(H_{\pm,\pm}^{\delta})(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_{1,j_1},\alpha_{2,j_2})).$

Notice that more than one reason could happen for a given I making that any of the 90 possible choices do not compute $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ by our method. The next table shows the number of cases for the corresponding reasons:

All these computations (110305 5-tuples such that the algorithm has finished in less than 10 CPU hours) took around 68 days of CPU time on a MacPro4.1 with 2 x 2.26 GHz Quad-Core Intel Xeon.

The first case where we have not been able to determine $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ is $I = \{0, 1, 2, 6, 10\}$ since 10 CPU hours was not enough. The second one is $I = \{0, 3, 5, 6, 10\}$. In this case, our method does not work since for all the elliptic quotients defined over quadratic fields the upper bound for the rank is greater than 1.

7. Consequences and comments

The main goal of this article is to give new evidences for the Rudin's Conjectures. First, given a positive integer $N \geq 6$ the Strong version asserts that Q(N) = Q(N; 24, 1). Our strategy to prove this conjecture is recursively, that is, if we

know Q(N) for some N then we attempt to compute Q(N+1). We have that $Q(N) \leq Q(N+1) \leq Q(N)+1$. Therefore we must compute \mathcal{Z}_I for any $I \subset \{0,\ldots,N\}$ such that #I=Q(N)+1. Note that if $z_I=0$ for any such tuples I, then Q(N+1)=Q(N). Otherwise Q(N+1)=Q(N)+1.

In section 3 we have proved Q(6) = Q(7) = 4, and Q(8) = 5 since Q(8; 24, 1) = 5. Following the same strategy, that is with the computations of subsets of 4 integers, we even prove that Q(9) = Q(10) = Q(11) = 5. But it is not enough to show that Q(12) = 5, since for $I = \{0, 1, 2, 5, 9, 11\}$ all the genus 1 quotients attached to subsets of I of four elements have positive rank. However, by using the methods in section 5, we prove that for $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ where $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ where $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ where $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ where $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ we have $I = \{0, 1, 2, 9, 11\}$ where $I = \{0,$

Now, in the general case, the strategy we followed was to consider all the primitive subsets I of 5 elements in $\{0, \ldots, 51\}$ where we are not able to compute $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$, either using the genus 1 quotients or by the methods in section 5, as we have described in the section 6. Using this list we recursively compute the list $\mathcal{N}C(k)$ of all the primitive subsets I of k elements, $k \geq 6$, such that we are not able to compute $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$, by finding all the primitive subsets I of k elements whose subsets of k-1 elements are equivalent to a subset in $\mathcal{N}C(k-1)$ (See table 1). Note that we determined $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ for all the subsets of $\{0, \ldots, 51\}$ with more than 10 elements.

k	$I \subset \{0, \dots, 51\}$	number of I
5	$\{0, 1, 2, 6, 10\}$	84749
6	$\{0, 1, 2, 7, 12, 15\}^{\P}$	289752
7	$\{0, 1, 6, 8, 11, 19, 23\}$	299855
8	$\{0, 1, 3, 11, 17, 22, 23, 30\}$	69241
9	$\{0, 2, 4, 13, 14, 19, 30, 33, 41\}$	2082
10	$\{0, 2, 7, 14, 17, 24, 37, 40, 43, 48\}$	2

TABLE 1. We list the first primitive subsets (in the natural order explained in section 2) with k elements that we are not able to determine $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$, together with the number of such subsets.

Furthermore, using now the subsets I with 5 elements where we explicitly determine $C_I(\mathbb{Q})$ and containing other points apart from the trivial ones, we explicitly compute, for $N \geq 8$, all the arithmetic progressions (q, a) such that $\#S_N(q, a) = Q(N)$ except§ for N = 11, 12. In the table 2 we summarize these results.

The computations from the table 2 allow us to prove what we have called Super–Strong Rudin's Conjecture up to level 52: let be $8 \le N = \mathcal{GP}_k + 1 \le 52$ for some integer k, then Q(N) = Q(N; q, a) with $\gcd(q, a)$ squarefree and q > 0 if and only if (q, a) = (24, 1).

We finish this section by discussing some points concerning the number of nonconstant arithmetic progressions having their squares in a subset $I \subset \{0, ..., N\}$

[¶]Note that $I = \{0, 1, 2, 7, 12, 15\} \subset S_{16}(24, 1)$. Therefore $(24, 1) \in \mathcal{Z}_I$, but we are not able to compute the exact value of z_I .

 $[\]S$ For the 5-tuples $\{0,1,2,6,10\},\{0,3,5,6,10\},\{0,2,4,5,11\},\{0,2,5,7,11\},\{0,1,5,8,11\}$ and $\{0,1,6,8,11\}$ we have not been able to compute the rational points of the corresponding genus 5 curve.

k	\mathcal{GP}_k	N	Q(N)	Arithmetic Progressions (q, a)		
-2	7	$ \begin{array}{r} 8 \\ 9 - 10 \\ 11^{\S} \\ 12^{\S} \end{array} $	5	(24, 1) (24, 1), (120, 1) (24, 1), (120, 1), (8, 1) (24, 1), (120, 1), (8, 1), (24, 25),		
				(120, 49), (40, 1), (168, 1)		
3	12	13 - 14 15	6	$ \begin{array}{c} (24,1) \\ (24,1), (24,25), (120,1) \end{array} $		
-3	15	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 - 18 \\ 19 - 20 \\ 21 \\ 22 \end{array} $	7	(24, 1) (24, 1), (120, 49) (24, 1), (120, 49), (120, 1) (24, 1), (120, 49), (120, 1), (24, 25), (8, 1)		
4	22	$ \begin{array}{r} 23 \\ 24 - 25 \\ 26 \end{array} $	8	(24, 1) (24, 1), (120, 49) (24, 1), (120, 49), (24, 25)		
-4	26	27 - 31 $32 - 34$ 35	9	(24, 1) (24, 1), (120, 1) (24, 1), (120, 1), (24, 25)		
5	35	36 - 39 40	10	(24, 1) (24, 1), (24, 25)		
-5	40	$ \begin{array}{r} 41 - 49 \\ 50 \\ 51 \end{array} $	11	(24, 1) (24, 1), (120, 49) (24, 1), (120, 49), (24, 25)		
6	51	52	12	(24,1)		

Table 2. In the first column k is an integer, in the second the corresponding generalized pentagonal number \mathcal{GP}_k , in the third an integer N, in the fourth Q(N) and in the last one appear the arithmetic progressions qn+a with $\gcd(q,a)$ squarefree and q>0 such that have Q(N) squares for $n\in\{0,\ldots,N-1\}$.

with $\#I \geq 5$. One consequence of our computations is that, for the subsets I of $\{0,\ldots,52\}$ with $\#I \geq 5$ that we are able to compute z_I , we have obtained that $z_I \leq 1$, except for one case where $z_I \leq 2$. But it is easy to see that this is not true in general.

Lemma 20. Consider $a_i, q_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then:

- (1) If q_1q_2 is not a square, then the set $S(q_1, a_1^2) \cap S(q_2, a_2^2)$ is infinite.
- (2) $S(q_1, a_1^2) \cap S(q_2, a_2^2) \cap S(q_3, a_3^2)$ is finite.
- (3) If the Bombieri-Lang conjecture is true, there exists an r such that, for any set of r pairs (q_i, a_i) of coprime integers, $\bigcap_{i=1}^r \mathcal{S}(q_i, a_i^2)$ has at most 4 elements.

Proof. The set $S(q_1, a_1^2) \cap S(q_2, a_2^2)$ can be described also by the set of integer solutions of the equation

$$x_1^2 - q_1 q_2 x_2^2 = q_2^2 a_1^2 - q_1 q_2 a_2^2,$$

which is a Pell type equation with a solution. Hence it has an infinite number of solutions.

In the case we have three pairs, we look for integer solutions of an equation giving a genus 1 curve, so it has a finite number of them by Siegel's Theorem.

If we have more than three pairs, the resulting curve will be of genus bigger than 1. So, suppose we have r pairs such that $J = \bigcap_{i=1}^r \mathcal{S}(q_i, a_i^2)$ has more than 4 elements, so there is a subset $I \subset J$ with 5 elements in it. This means that the corresponding curve C_I will have genus 5, and with $\#C_I(\mathbb{Q}) \geq 16r + 8$ (and, if $q_i \neq 0$ for all $i \in I$, in fact $\geq 16(r+1)$). But thanks to the results from [6], the Bombieri-Lang conjecture implies there is an absolute bound for the number of rational points of genus 5 curves over \mathbb{Q} . Hence such r is bounded by above. \square

Example 21. Using the ideas of the previous lemma, it is easy to construct one parametric families of subsets $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ with 5 elements along with two different and non-constant arithmetic progressions taking squares in I. For example, for any integer s > 1, we have that

$$S(s-1,1) \cap S(s+1,1) \supset \{0, 4s, 4s(4s^2-1), 8s(8s^4-6s^2+1), 8s(32s^6-40s^4+14s^2-1)\}.$$

As a consequence, we have built a one-parametric family of genus 5 non-hyperelliptic curves (of the form C_I) having at least $3 \cdot 16 = 48$ points.

Remark 22. If the Bombieri-Lang conjecture is true then thanks to the results from [6] we have that there exists a bound $B(g,\mathbb{Q})$ such that any curve of genus g defined over \mathbb{Q} satisfying $\#C(\mathbb{Q}) \leq B(g,\mathbb{Q})$. For the special case g=5, Kulesz [18] found a biparametric family of hyperelliptic curves of genus 5 with 24 automorphisms over \mathbb{Q} with at least 96 points such that specializing he is able to found a genus 5 hyperelliptic curve C defined over \mathbb{Q} such that $\#C(\mathbb{Q})=120$. For the non-hyperelliptic case we have that the curve C_I attached to a 5-tuple $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ is of genus 5 and has 16 automorphisms over \mathbb{Q} . The example 21 shows a one-parametric family of genus 5 non-hyperelliptic curves with at least $3 \cdot 16 = 48$ points. Furthermore, we have found the following curves attached to 5-tuples $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ such that $\#C_I(\mathbb{Q}) \geq 5 \cdot 16 = 80$. For this search, we have looked for 5-tuples such that have points corresponding to S(24b,a) with a=1+24k square for some $b,k \in \mathbb{N}$. The table 3 shows the results we have obtained.

I	Arithmetic progression (q, a) such that $I \subset \mathcal{S}(q, a)$					
$\{0, 2, 13, 23, 2233\}$	(240, 1369)	(72, 25)	(120, 3481)	(168, 625)		
$\{0, 5, 19, 70, 1020\}$	(72, 1)	(120, 2209)	(552, 961)	(24, 169)		
$\{0, 5, 33, 70, 1183\}$	(1344, 169)	(72, 1849)	(816, 961)	(24, 169)		
$\{0, 17, 52, 147, 290\}$	(120, 1681)	(96, 49)	(24, 961)	(264, 2401)		

Table 3. Some 5-tuples I with $z_I \geq 4$.

Note that the Bombieri-Lang conjecture implies that, for $k \geq 5$, a constant c(k) should exist such that $z_I \leq c(k)$ for all $I \subset \mathbb{N}$ with #I = k. In particular, $z_I \leq c(5)$ for all $I \subset \mathbb{N}$. The previous examples show that $c(k) \geq 2$ and $c(5) \geq 4$ (but we believe c(5) > 4).

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Data: All the Magma and Sage sources are available on the first author's webpage.

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Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Departamento de Matemáticas and Instituto de Ciencias Matemáticas (ICMat), Madrid, Spain

 $E{-}mail~address{:}~enrique.gonzalez.jimenez@uam.es\\ URL:~http://www.uam.es/enrique.gonzalez.jimenez$

Departament de Matemàtiques, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, 08193 Bellaterra, Barcelona, Spain

 $E ext{-}mail\ address: xarles@mat.uab.cat}$